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ABSTRACT

One hundred thirty statements make up the report on educational programs for handicapped adolescents in OECD (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development) member countries. Part I reviews various approaches and strategies in terms of the normalization principle, legal measures, and administrative organization and funding of services. The process of integration is discussed as it relates to change in attitudes, service delivery, and teaching styles. Part II describes the school's role in vocational education and facilitating the transition to working life. A final part points out areas for further study including the nature of parental contributions to decisions about their children's programs. (SB)

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# THE EDUCATION OF THE HANDICAPPED ADOLESCENT

**Report on the Results of the First Phase**

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CHATEAU DE LA MUETTE, OECD, PARIS

ORGANISATION FOR ECONOMIC
CO-OPERATION AND DEVELOPMENT

March 1981

Centre for Educational Research
and Innovation

Or. Engl.

# THE EDUCATION OF THE HANDICAPPED ADOLESCENT

## Report on the Results of the First Phase(1)

## 1976-1979

(Note by the Secretariat)

1. The programme of work concerning the Education of the Handicapped Adolescent began with the official approval of the activity in May 1978 by the CERI Governing Board. The mandate of this first phase of the project has been to identify new and innovative strategies in the education of handicapped young people.

2. The attached paper is based on a great deal of evidence, in part commissioned under the project and in part generously provided by a wide range of Member countries. From this evidence, an attempt has been made to distil some of the major issues which are currently being debated in Member countries, bearing in mind that not all OECD countries are at the same stage of development or even share the same views about such delicate issues as normalisation, integration, sheltered workshops, types of employment for young people with handicaps, and so on.

3. This report was presented to the Members of the CERI Governing Board at its 21st session on 15th-16th November, 1979. The Members of the Board recommended its de-restriction for wider circulation.

(1) The decision to de-restrict the present document was taken on 23rd February, 1981.

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## Summary

The first part of this paper is devoted to the education of the handicapped adolescent and the different approaches and strategies used in Member countries to improve educational opportunities for them. The current trend towards the integration of the handicapped into the ordinary school involves important policy and social changes in Member countries.

Diverse strategies are examined towards the achievement of full integration with emphasis on the improvement in the delivery of services, the roles of multi-disciplinary teams and of in-service teacher training playing an important part in the success of any integration.

Part II describes the important role of the school at the end of compulsory education for the handicapped adolescent as a preparation for the transition to working life. Employment opportunities for the handicapped are often scarce, especially in times of high unemployment, and efforts are being made to relate curricula to employment needs and in offering work preparation courses and opportunities in vocational training. Other factors to be taken into consideration for the successful integration of the handicapped into open employment include: an active role on the part of the unions; support services on the job; co-operation of fellow workers; and adaptation of the work environment.

The transition to adult living and the appropriate degree of autonomy that it implies, is a crucial step in the development of the handicapped individual. Again, many obstacles prevent an easy transition such as transportation, residence and access to leisure activities. Here, in addition to support services, local community action and awareness of the needs of the handicapped are essential.

Consideration must also be taken of the small percentage of severely handicapped people who are unlikely to obtain jobs. What kind of life style - what alternatives to work - can be offered to them? Having a salaried job and doing meaningful work is important to an individual's self-image, and the handicapped are no exception.

Part III of the paper outlines the proposals for further study in the second phase of the project.

# REPORT ON THE RESULTS OF THE FIRST PHASE

## INTRODUCTION

### Background

1. The last few years have witnessed increasing concern and activity centred on the education of handicapped youth in Member countries. As a result, CERI in co-operation with appropriate institutions and agencies in Member countries, undertook in 1978 a project focused on the particular problems of such handicapped young people during their last years of basic schooling and their entry into adult life, the world of work or further education.

2. The project has attempted to identify and clarify the key areas of major concern and to examine interventions and approaches being applied in the countries of the OECD in response to the critical issues concerning the destinies of handicapped youth.

3. As a result of the extensive amount of investigation and subsequent documentation, as well as the high level of activity in the OECD Member countries generated by the project, the Governing Board of the Centre for Educational Research and Innovation approved the continuation of the work at its meeting on 25th-26th May, 1978.

4. It is felt, at this point in time, half way through the project, that it would be useful to put together in a short report some of the findings to date both for information and to solicit advice and guidance concerning some of the major issues that have emerged and the directions which the next phase of the project may take.

### Identifying useful practice

5. The mandate of the project, from the very beginning, has been to identify examples of new approaches in Member countries concerned with the education of handicapped youth and to use these as the basis for international exchange of information and ideas and to extend knowledge in the field through the dissemination of studies based on these practices. This has been a rather unique strategy as opposed to the traditional comparative data collecting on existing services for the handicapped. It has necessitated an examination of current issues and problems in the field as well as an analysis of some of the changes in practice actually taking place in Member countries.

6. Two major themes were established to provide the central framework for the research: (i) the schooling of handicapped young people before the end of compulsory education; and

(ii) the transition from school to work and the entry of handicapped youth into the world of work. The first phase of the project has concentrated on an examination of strategies being used in Member countries to meet the needs of handicapped young people in these two areas.

Context

7. The question of the destinies of handicapped youth has come more and more into focus in Member countries with the identification of increasing numbers of handicapped, and the even greater costs of services for them. The CERI project concentrates in particular on the adolescent since there has been a general gap in the research and useful data available about this age range. The two main themes, that of the final years of schooling and the transition to work, were chosen as the crucial moments in the lives of handicapped youth when their futures are being determined as independent individuals or as assisted persons for life.

8. Educating handicapped children and youth in separate, specialised institutions is being increasingly questioned and contested in Member countries. What was once thought of as the best way of dealing with the handicapped - separating them from the rest of society - is now held so much in doubt that the very separation from other members of society is considered as adding fundamentally to the handicap.

9. The most vocal challenge to special segregated schools came from the United States in the 1960s, first from parent associations and then from public opinion supported by research. Doubt was raised about the efficacy of special classes and of remedial strategies in a segregated context. In 1971 the sociologists Garrison and Hammill found that of 350 children in special classes for the retarded, 2 out of 3 were misplaced; they presented behaviour problems and came from low socio-economic backgrounds. Schools were attacked by parent groups for using special classes as "dumping" grounds.

10. The use of labelling theory significantly enhanced the understanding of the process of becoming "abnormal" or handicapped by shifting attention from the person to those who do the labelling and the forces that affect their judgment. The work of sociologists on theories of deviant behaviour has also thrown light on the effects of labelling on the handicapped. Handicap due to a disability stems from the fact that it is a deviation from some norm:

"A sociological theory of deviance must focus specifically upon the interactions which not only define behaviour as deviant, but also organize and activate the application of sanctions by individuals, groups, or agencies. For in modern society, the socially significant differentiation of deviants from the non-deviant population is increasingly contingent upon circumstances of situation, place, social and personal biography, and the bureaucratically organized activities of agencies of social control."(1)

Thus the fact of labelling children as handicapped met with serious criticism. "Good" labels open doors for children, but "bad" labels close off future possibilities. "Labels justify the abuse of children making them categorically different. Somehow this act of labelling sets them apart from other children, permits or even encourages the denial of their humaness."(2)

11. The medical model that relates handicapping conditions to intrinsic medical causes and preposes possible treatment has been questioned. Speech, hearing, learning disabilities are not diseases, but disorders, a diffuse collection of functional impairments and there is no direct relationship between cause and educational treatment. It was therefore considered more important for the educator to specify the nature of the current condition or developmental patterns of the child than to search for basic causes.

12. Research also showed some of the consequences of labels on teacher expectations of children labelled as retarded. "Prospective teachers presented with behavioural descriptions of the educable mentally retarded, tend to develop negative attitudes and low expectations for them...a teacher may convince himself that there is nothing he can do for the child; he may then convey this attitude to the child in day to day

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(1) Kitsuse, J. "Societal Reaction to Deviant Behavior: Problems of Theory and Method". In The Other Side, ed. Becker, H.S., Free Press, New York, 1964.
(2) Hobbs, Professor Nicholas, The Future of Children, Jossey-Bass Publishers, San Francisco, Ca., 1975.

interactions and then see the child's subsequent failures as confirmation of the diagnosis. Thus the self-fulfilling prophecy is set in motion."(1)(2)

13. As a result of these new perspectives on segregated education, parents and citizen groups began fighting for the right to a "normal" education for handicapped children. Legal actions were brought to bear and the notion of "zero reject" as a right of all handicapped children was created.

14. In 1975 a major piece of federal legislation was passed in the United States: Public Law 94-142, Education of all Handicapped Children Act which requires that handicapped children receive a free, appropriate public education in the least restrictive educational environment. Although the law does not stipulate integration for all handicapped children, it does mandate that education with non-handicapped children ( to the maximum extent appropriate) will be the governing objective.

15. This critical movement that has led to changes in policy has not been unique to the United States; similar developments have been taking place in other Member countries of the OECD. Although there are major differences in the form of change in the various countries, there is perhaps one major common point in the overall objective of education for the handicapped, and that is to integrate them as much as possible with the rest of society.

A conceptual framework

16. There is no pretention at attempting to provide here a full analysis of findings in the present document. An effort however, has been made to organise the information within a conceptual framework based on the following rationale.

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(1) Ibid.

(2) It will be noticed throughout this paper that no specific classification system is being used when referring to the "handicapped" and little distinction is made between the various degrees of physical, sensorial, mental disabilities. What seems as neglect of an important issue is indeed a deliberate choice; emphasis on strategies, policies and issues in Member countries in the meeting of educational needs of this "deviant" population, and secondly, traditional classification systems mostly based on the intrinsic medical model, and to segregative treatment strategies, are ill-adapted to understanding the dynamics involved in integrative practices.

17. In order to understand the dynamics of innovation and of new approaches to practices in the education of handicapped young people, it is necessary to consider the process of social change that is involved. It is not only a question of the transformation and improvement of services, or even policies, but of changes on a much deeper level, involving social values, norms and even ethical judgments. The leap from segregation to integrative practices implies the modification of some fundamental attitudes towards handicapped persons.

18. The concepts and categories that have been chosen to give body to the document are intended to trace the structure of this process of social change. The choice of the integrative rather than the segregative approach to educating handicapped youth is underlined by the principle philosophy of "normalisation". A number of tools are being used to create change, such as legal measures, re-organisation of administrative structures, and measures of funding. These factors can be seen as providing a concrete basis for policy change at government level.

19. The actual applications (or misapplications) of these policy measures can then be monitored in the structural changes that are observed in the process of integration. The different forms of integration and service delivery, the changes in attitudes and strategies, such as the modification of the notion of handicap, changes in basic education, in the notion of what special education is, the discovery of the need for new teaching styles, are all key elements in the dynamics of change. The results of these transformations, if indeed optimism is allowed, should be better schools for everyone and a society where room is given for those persons who do not conform exactly to established norms.

20. The issue of the transition to work for handicapped youth is intimately related to the question of schooling and therefore conforms to the categories used in the configuration of the social change concept of Part I.

# I. INTEGRATION OF HANDICAPPED YOUTH IN ORDINARY SCHOOLS

## A. Current Trends in Member Countries

21. A number of policy issues have been examined during the course of the work in an effort to understand the course that the move towards integration is taking in Member countries. It can be said that in all the countries participating in the project the change from segregative services to an integrative approach to education is relatively recent (approximately the last 10-15 years), that in no country is it total, and that it is a dynamically changing process. The actual history of how societies have dealt with "abnormal" populations is a long one(1) and will not be gone into here. In recent years, however, the debate has mainly centred on the "educability" of handicapped people, both physically, mentally and sensorially disabled. During the last 50 years, militant parent groups have fought for the right of handicapped children to an education. This was met by the growth of special schools and institutions segregated from the "normal" population. The battle is now based on the "normalisation" principle, that is, the right to as "normal" a life as possible. This puts the responsibility on society to enable a "normal" existence for those who have difficulty in adapting readily to existing structures.

### 1. Creating change

22. The "normalisation" principle poses a considerable challenge to administrators and policy makers in actually effecting the necessary changes in social organisation of structures, services and resources. Indications of how countries are meeting these new exigencies are made evident in recent legal measures, the administrative organisation of services and methods of funding services. Before going on to give some examples of these policy trends one needs to ask the question of where the impetus for change in policy originates, for this is important in understanding the dynamics involved in policy transformation.

23. As has been implied throughout the above discussion, the issue of how societies develop strategies to deal with their "abnormal" or "handicapped" members is a value-laden problem and subject to heated debates. The study of attitudes is crucial in the comprehension of changing policies. This may seem like a "chicken and egg" polemic; however, it does have a bearing on what is actually occuring in Member countries.

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(1) An excellent account of this is found in Histoire de la Folie by Michel Foucault, Gallimard, Paris, 1976.

24. Initiatives for change may come from above, at government level, meaning that resources, funding and legal measures are made available for effecting changes. This usually involves good planning, re-organisation of structures and an efficient bureaucracy. However, there is no guarantee that these initiatives are readily accepted by those on the ground who are to carry out the actual policy. Measures may come too early compared to some very engrained, difficult to change attitudes and prejudices concerning the handicapped.

25. Initiatives may come from below, that is from the local community level, from parents' organisations, handicapped associations and individual schools. This often means some very interesting sporadic and often marginal experiments doomed to die eventually unless resources are made available to keep them alive. However, as will be pointed out later, local push for change has played a significant role in the development of new policies.

2. Legal measures

26. Legislation can be an important tool in implementing changes. Legal acts can express intentions, set down principles, establish guidelines. They can relate to resources and means of actually concretising ideas, by making funds available, for example. Legislation, however, is not necessarily applied and can remain for years as a mere statement of philosophy or intentions.

27. In some countries recent legal measures have been determinant in actually putting integration into practice. The U.S. federal legislation Public Law 94-142 of 1975 has already been mentioned as having acted as a motor in the mainstreaming movement. According to this law, schools cannot refuse to accept a handicapped child if education in an ordinary school is deemed as being optimal for the individual. The law requires that handicapped children receive a free, appropriate public education in the least restrictive educational environment. Of course, the least restrictive environment can be interpreted as being a special class or a special school. The law does mandate, however, that education with non-handicapped children should be the governing objective.

28. Italy is perhaps another example where legislation has played a major role in the integration of handicapped young people in ordinary schools. The act of 30th March, 1971 No. 118 is considered as the turning point from a policy of segregation to one of integration. Article 28 establishes that: "compulsory education must take place within normal classes in public

schools except in those cases in which the subject suffers from a severe intellectual deficit or from physical handicaps so severe as to impede or render difficult their learning processes of integration in the aforesaid normal classes." Further applications of the law have released additional resources, stipulated the presence of auxiliary special teachers and restricted the maximum number of students to 20 in an integrated class.

29. Not all countries have approached the problem of educating the handicapped from the point of view of specific measures for the handicapped. Norway has used the unique approach of considering the reform of basic education for all children without identifying a special population for separate treatment. The Education Act of 1969 that implemented the nine-year comprehensive school reform, also created the possibility of integrating handicapped pupils into ordinary schools. A Royal Commission was appointed to prepare for a full merger of the Special Schools Act and the Compulsory Education Act thus making special education an integral part of basic education with the same goals.

30. A very different legal strategy is one that pertains to perfecting the guidance structure for the handicapped. The main objective is to rationalise the organisation of services for the handicapped and render structures as efficient as possible. The French "Loi d'orientation en faveur des personnes handicapées" has the reputation of being one of the most advanced legislations in its thorough coverage of provisions for the handicapped. It affirms that priority must be given to solutions which keep the handicapped person in his natural environment. Placement decisions are made by local committees representing various specialists and they may judge that specialised placement is the most adequate for the child or adolescent.

31. The existence of legislation does not necessarily mean that it is put into practice immediately. In the United Kingdom, Section 10 of the 1976 Education Act states that handicapped children should be educated in ordinary schools unless this is impractical, incompatible with efficient instruction or unreasonably expensive. Section 10 has not yet been put into effect and awaits the legitimisation of the recommendations of the Warnock Committee (a special committee to study the problems of the handicapped).

32. It will be clear from the foregoing examples that legislative measures are not in themselves sufficient in changing policies for the education of the handicapped. They have, therefore, to be considered as but one element, very important in some countries, in the complex configuration of factors leading to change.

### 3. Organisation and funding

33. The administrative organisation of services as well as the resources made available through funding are also key elements in the analysis of changing practices concerning the education of handicapped young people. It is not only a question of the quality of organisation and the quantity of funds, but of the actual influence these have on the direction of practice. For example, in a system where day rates are paid per head of handicapped child within an institution, it is difficult to take the child out of the institution to send him/her to an ordinary school if the resources covering his/her needs do not follow.

34. These kinds of contradictions arise often from a lack of co-ordination of government responsibilities. In many countries, previously the organisation of services for the handicapped were clearly divided between the ministries of health and education. During the period when the medical model of handicap prevailed and a large proportion of disabled young people were considered as "uneducable", such people were allocated to the health sector, while the educable were under the aegis the ministries of education.

35. Integration has complicated these clearly defined boundaries since disabled youngsters attending an ordinary school are still in need of health services. Most schools are not equipped either to receive wheel-chaired students or those who may need regular health care or therapy. Is this a problem for education or health and social services? Often the multidisciplinary approach necessary to make integration work poses problems in a uni-financed system.

36. Another important issue is the division of responsibilities between national and local authorities. Here the questions of who bears the financial burdens and who has the autonomy become fundamental not only in the management of integration, but also in the initiatives to be taken to institute changes. Co-operation among the various agencies involved and the difficulties to do so can also make or break the success of integrating the handicapped.

37. The modalities used to deal with these difficulties often depend on whether a system is centralised or decentralised. Each has its own configuration of strategies, with its own set of contradictions. In decentralised systems such as the United States and the United Kingdom, a great deal of autonomy is accorded to the states and local authorities concerning both education and health. Although recommendations are made at a national level, the variations in practice are practically unlimited. Difficulties arise in the control of the quality of services, but on the other hand, a great deal of initiative is to be found at the local level.

38. Funding of services is shared between central government and local agencies. Funding can be the tool used by central government to ensure a certain type and quality of service on the local level as is done in the United States. The federal government allocates money to the states, specifically for the handicapped, in the form of grants (research, demonstrations, training) and direct state assistance. The state aid assistance is based upon the submission and approval of a state programme plan and the number of handicapped students being served. Monitoring of these state grants is done through federal audits.

39. In the United Kingdom local authorities are virtually autonomous in their responsibility for education and social services. Funding from central authorities takes the form of block grants. Although the Government suggests guidelines for expenditure, local authorities - both health and education agencies - decide on their own priorities. In this context there are no specific grants for special education. Expenditure on ordinary and special education varies from one authority to another and average figures disguise wide variations.

40. It is interesting to note that the tendency in centralised countries is to accord increasing autonomy in both organisation and funding to the local level. When it comes to handicapped young people, this is all the more important since traditional practice has been to remove them from homes to another part of the country for placement in a specialised institution. The trend towards integration has been accompanied by the necessity to provide local services and thus allowing disabled young people to remain near, or in their families.

41. A recent example of increased local autonomy is the case of Italy as a result of the Health Reform of 23rd December, 1978 whereby the responsibility for all services has been allocated to the jurisdiction of the regions. Financing of special education, however, is the responsibility of the Ministry of Education through the payment of teachers, support and complementary activities, matrons, socio-pedagogical teams, and teaching aids. Difficulties can arise in estimating the exact needs of the regions and the quality of services can suffer as a result of miscalculation.

42. Norway is another example of the transfer of responsibility for handicapped children from the state to the communes. This was done through the Education Act of 1969 whereby special education became part of the local school system. Local expenditures for educational provisions for the handicapped are now covered by various transfers from the state to the communes. In

principle, these financial contributions from the state are assumed to refund extra costs incurred by the commune for provisions for handicapped pupils beyond the average cost of a normal child.

## B. The Process of Integration

43. The meaning of the term "integration" has been widely discussed during the course of the project, and this has not diminished its sometimes controversial, sometimes vague overtones. It was agreed during an OECD Experts' Meeting on Integration, however, that the concept of integration first of all expresses a social and humanistic goal, notably of establishing equal rights for those who are different and do not measure up to regular norms as defined in relation to so-called "normal" members of society. Agreement is usually general on the philosophy of integration; opinion diverges, however, on how it is to be applied. It has been suggested that when talking about practical applications the term "forms of placement" would be more exact as a working terminology. If integration means "societal integration", that is the handicapped individual has access to society's goods and services, including employment in the open market, just as any other citizen, then very few societies have so far truly succeeded in integrating the handicapped. What one actually finds then are attempts at de-segregation of the handicapped with a view to their full integration in society. The different forms that the effort to integrate is taking in Member countries is an indication of the complexities of this process.

### 1. Forms of integration and service delivery

44. There is as yet no general agreement on what is the best form of placement toward achieving full integration of handicapped youngsters. Each country is experimenting with individual solutions. Methods of evaluating results are far from being conclusive and yet some very pertinent and impressive accounts can be gathered to show that integration can work in certain situations.

45. Some countries are more cautious in their approach to placing handicapped children and adolescents in ordinary schools. A rapid transition from separate, special education to complete individual integration of handicapped children in an ordinary classroom is seen as a risky affair both in terms of administration and for the persons involved. Intermediate solutions are found such as building special schools near to an ordinary

school and sharing school grounds, leisure and sports activities, etc. Special classes within an ordinary school is another popular solution in several Member countries. Handicapped children are then present in the school; a system of sharing classes, teachers and activities part of the time is one way of facilitating the contact between handicapped and non-handicapped. Critics of this approach claim that the handicapped children are just as segregated and stigmatised in special classes as if they were in a separate institution. The answer then is, that it depends on how this is done, the type of contacts encouraged and the sensitivity and skills of the teachers involved.

46. Special units, or adaptation classes, are yet another step in the "gradual" approach to integration. Here handicapped students are taken out of their classroom for remedial or specialised teaching. This is usually practiced in the case of mildly handicapped pupils. Ideally, the objective is to bring the student up to "par" in order that he/she can catch up with the rest of the class. Again, the criticism of stigmatisation as the "slow learner" with all its negative effects could be made; however, the management of this situation by the teacher plays a fundamental part in the outcomes.

47. Perhaps the most difficult, threatening and most spectacular form of placement is individual integration of a handicapped child in a regular classroom. To some people this is the only true form of integration since it usually indicates an effort to accept a handicapped child like any other child, giving him/her the same rights. The danger is of course failing to live up to these objectives, discriminating and giving up because of difficulties.

48. In most countries attempts are being made at individual integration; some countries, such as Italy, are practising it widely with the goal of making it a general policy for educating the handicapped, while in other countries it is a more or less marginal practice.

49. All forms of placement towards integration require a particular system of service delivery. General agreement exists regarding the important role of multi-disciplinary teams in giving the necessary support to the school. These teams usually consist of psychologists, doctors, (psychiatrists) special teachers and therapists. Depending on the country, or local area, the teams are more or less thinly spread throughout the population. The example of Madison, Wisconsin (United States) is illustrative of a most thorough network of support services.

50. For it to meet with success, individual integration must rely rather heavily on support services (at least in the beginning until the teacher feels at ease with the handicapped child). The number of handicapped children in a class is usually limited to two, while the total group should not exceed 20 pupils. In most cases a special teacher is present full- or part-time.

51. Placing handicapped pupils in ordinary schools often necessitates the transformation of buildings, the presence of some kind of assistant (in Sweden the government makes special provision for assistants to handicapped persons) and easy access to transportation. Medical aid, therapy, special technical equipment also become the problem of the school.

## 2. Changing attitudes and strategies

52. Examples of innovative practices within the context of changing policies toward the education of handicapped young people has helped to reveal some of the important issues that are an integral part of the integration process. It has been generally agreed that to make integration work a number of fundamental changes and shifts are necessary to both attitudes and strategies of action. Some of these changes precede attempts to integrate, but it is safer to say that changes are occuring simultaneously with practice as those actually working with handicapped young people are discovering them in a different context. The following are a number of fundamental issues that have arisen in the course of discussions and study.

## 3. Changing the notion of handicap

53. The idea that a handicap is a permanent and intrinsic flaw or disease of the individual is gradually being replaced by the notion of disability or impairment within a certain context. Philip Wood in his study on classification for the World Health Organisation defines the term handicap as reflecting the value attached to an individual's character when it departs from the norm of a particular group: "Handicap is characterised by a discordance between the individual's performance or status and the expectations of the particular group of which he is a member. Because of his impairment and disability, the handicapped individual is at a disadvantage by virtue of failing or being unable to conform to the expectations or norms of his universe. Handicap thus represents the social and environmental consequences to the individual stemming from the presence of impairments and disability."

54. Changing the focus from solely internal criteria to reflecting on the part played by the environment, has been fundamental in making integration possible. The idea that a handicapped child may cope within an ordinary school environment given that the environment effects the necessary changes to enable the child to cope, has been a rather revolutionary move from traditional segregative strategies.

55. Professor Nicholas Hobbs(1) has developed an alternative approach to classification that avoids the stigmatising effect of labels, while at the same time serves the necessary function of being able to meet the various special needs of a handicapped child or adolescent. He calls this an "ecological approach" to classification, for instead of merely diagnosing a "defect" within the child, the attempt is to look at the child within the context of his global environment, family, school, friends, neighbourhood, etc., in order to determine his special needs and ways of meeting them within his own environment. This model also admits that needs and capacities can change and that the child may not be handicapped for life. The goal is to meet his needs at a certain point in time and then see how he changes. There have been a number of attempts at the application of such a model in the examples of how services are organised in some Member countries.

4. Changing basic education

56. If it is accepted that students with certain disabilities are handicapped within a certain type of educational context, then countries cannot avoid re-examining selective and segregating education systems. This means not only the contents of education, but also the criteria that have been set up to achieve success in the system.

57. Norway is a good example of this re-evaluation of the basic education system as an approach to integrating the handicapped. Rather than centring exclusively on the problems of handicapped students the Education Reform's mandate was to widen the concept of equality for everyone. One of the consequences of the Education Act of 1975 was to include special education within the broad goals of basic education in general. It was emphasised that special education is not provided for handicapped children or handicapped children of any special categories, but for any child or youth who does not (temporarily or for a longer period) profit from ordinary education or who needs a more individually adjusted environment or programme of teaching than what is provided in the local schools.

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(1) Vanderbilt Institute for Public Policy Studies, Nashville, Tenn., U.S.A.

58. If basic education could be aimed to meet the widest possible variation in individual needs - including some very special needs, for instance of the deaf or blind, the need to classify some students as handicapped may disappear.

5. Changing the notion of special education

59. The term "special education" has for many years been equivalent to "segregation" and still is to some extent. In some countries it has meant a lower quality of education adapted to ideas of handicapped, less able students. This has often gone along with private endeavours to provide an education for those who would otherwise be excluded from schooling, with less qualified and underpaid teachers. In other countries, "special education" has meant sophisticated teaching techniques, costly facilities and highly qualified personnel. Examples have been known of non-handicapped youth trying to enter a vocational training centre for the handicapped because of the high quality of training and assurance of being employed at the end.

60. The de-segregating "special education" and making it part of basic education in general provides not only a way of enabling the integration of the handicapped, but also raising the quality of education in general. Some very probing examples have been witnessed in Member countries of how this breaking down of barriers between "special" and "basic" have improved teaching styles, added necessary resources and have made schools a better place for everyone.

6. New teaching styles

61. Anyone who has participated in school life knows how sacrosanct the classroom is for the teacher and how difficult it is for him or her to accept the presence of another adult for any length of time. This is a hurdle that has had to be overcome in many schools practising integration. Different ideas exist about the values of co-teaching and ways of practising it. In Madison, Wisconsin special education teachers were brought into the ordinary classes to ensure support for the handicapped child, and they ended up by helping the regular teacher with the whole class. This has been found as most successful not only in the effect on the class, but also in spreading professional expertise to the non-specialist teacher and vice versa.

62. In Italy specialised support teachers are present in the classroom until the class teacher feels confident enough to deal with the handicapped child alone. However, co-teaching is also becoming more widespread especially since it is found to be more effective in dealing with individual needs in the classroom.

63. Another important factor in changing teaching styles has been the presence of multi-disciplinary support teams. An important issue has been whether to take the handicapped student out of the classroom for rehabilitation and therapy or to bring these services into the classroom.

64. One of the difficulties in the lives of handicapped youngsters has traditionally been the division of their time between separate specialists with no communication among them. Given that the presence of support services to the school can make or break the success of integration, the multi-disciplinary team approach has been adopted in several Member countries. This facilitates the co-ordination of the different specialists concerned with the handicapped pupil, as well as ensuring the availability of a wider range of professional capacities. Co-ordination of members of the team is important not only for the handicapped child, but also the teacher to ensure that he or she does not suffer from the dispersed impact of multiple approaches.

65. It is often claimed that rehabilitation and therapy should be carried on in the classroom in the presence of the teacher and if possible the parent. The direct involvement of the teacher in rehabilitation and therapy helps him or her to have a better understanding of the child and to find adapted teaching methods. For the child, the educational environment is not cut up into school and therapy sessions but is part of the same life space.

66. The presence of support services in the school requires new strategies not only on the part of the teacher but also for school management. In Madison, Wisconsin the co-ordination of the activities of the various support personnel has been facilitated by a "building team" approach with the headmaster being responsible for the team and acting as co-ordinator to avoid power struggles within the team.

67. In an integrated situation, a specialist should be able to come into the classroom and work out teaching methods for a particular child with the teacher. On the other hand, a special education teacher should have the opportunity to teach ordinary pupils at the same time as he or she is working with the handicapped. All these various strategies, such as co-teaching and working with multi-disciplinary teams, raise the question of what type of teacher training is best suited to prepare teachers for integration.

68. The need, as expressed in a number of Member countries, is for training that gives more emphasis to the psychological and personal development of the teacher to enable him or her to deal with the variety of problems and situations that occur in the classroom.

69. New strategies are being tried to give a wider spectrum of training possibilities to teachers. In the United States, the Bureau of the Handicapped, as a follow-up of Law 94-142, has given substantial grants to universities with strong special education departments to assist them in co-operating with teacher training departments.

70. In Italy the emphasis is no longer on training specialised teachers, but in training all teachers in special education. There is, however, a two-year course for special teachers that is divided into supplying information and training through actual teaching practice. The Ministry of Education has been organising courses for regular teachers that can also be taken by headmasters.

71. In France there is the possibility of participating in short-term retraining courses offered by the Ministry to prepare teachers to receive handicapped pupils in their class.

72. In Madison, Wisconsin special education teachers have been criticised for being weak in developing curriculum even though they were highly trained in terms of techniques. Training special education teachers with regular teachers has been positive from this point of view, especially at the secondary level involving the mildly and moderately handicapped.(1)

7. Better schools for everyone

73. Experience has shown that integrating handicapped young people in ordinary schools effects changes in the schools: additional resources are brought to the school, teaching techniques are reconsidered. The school opens more to the community by involving parents and making use of community resources. It can be argued that by rendering schools "good" for integration, one is creating better schools for everyone.

74. The question then arises of how can the effects of integration be evaluated to measure how both the handicapped and the non-handicapped pupils are faring. Data in this area is very difficult to quantify, and one has perhaps to go by the subjective statements being made in Member countries by those people who are directly experiencing integration within schools.

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(1) Developing new curriculum for meeting the needs of handicapped students, especially at the secondary level, is also an important factor in making integration work.

75. There has been the fear that bringing handicapped youth together with aggressive adolescents would result in scape-goating. This has proven quite false and not only have the handicapped been respected in the environment, but adolescents tend to play a nurturing, supportive role. It has been proven that therapy could be done in the school, within the classroom and that it has been possible to integrate services without using a clinical model. Integration has not lowered the general standards of the school. It has also been proven that regular educators are open to teaching handicapped students. In fact most of the regular curriculum is appropriate for the mildly handicapped, although new curriculum has to be developed for the severely or profoundly handicapped. Imaginative ways have been found for developing such separate curriculum involving non-handicapped pupils in the teaching of their handicapped classmates.

76. Benefits for the handicapped children and adolescents attending ordinary schools are much talked about. Increased socialisation, the importance of identification with non-handicapped peers, learning to cope in a normal environment, greater motivation for learning, fewer negative effects of stigmatisation, accepting and being accepted by others.... The list is long. Very little, however, is said about the benefits gained by non-handicapped students by associating with their handicapped peers.

77. The fear that the presence of handicapped children will lower the standards of the rest of the class have been proven false. On the contrary examples have shown that children had acquired a greater ability in communicating what they were learning from helping to teach their handicapped friends. Their cognitive growth was comparable to the rate of learning in other classrooms. Being exposed to handicapped peers, coming to understand them also teaches non-handicapped youngsters that being different is not necessarily inferior or dangerous. This kind of early experience may lead to a more tolerant society in future generations.

## II. TRANSITION FROM SCHOOL TO WORKING LIFE

### A. Work and the Handicapped Adolescent

78. The problems for disabled youth become most acute at the end of compulsory schooling, in the period of transition from what has been a relatively organised and sheltered existence to working life. Work in industrialised societies is an essential factor in the formation of identity as an adult member of the community. For handicapped young people this can be a most difficult and threatening period of realisation that many more doors are closed for them than for their more fortunate peers.

79. The social "destinies" of young people are highly dependent on the various possibilities for action that their given socio-cultural context holds for them. Goals for the future are not only determined by the availability of schooling, training and job openings, but are also related to what goals are seen by the individual as being possible to pursue. The goals that young people set for themselves are to a large extent goals that they have been taught were possible for them. Aspirations and ongoing experience are closely related in the realisation of destiny.

80. The role of the school in preparing the adolescent for working life is even more important in the case of handicapped young people. The necessary assurance, coping skills and technical training are essential acquisitions if the young handicapped person is to feel that he/she can aspire to a job.

81. The traditional openings for the handicapped in unskilled and semi-skilled work are diminishing with advanced technology while there are less likely to be suitable jobs in relatively expanding service industries. During periods of unemployment the more able are forced to take mundane jobs displacing those below them on the ladder and leaving the handicapped last in the queue, unless they are given extra help.

82. The pressures that youth unemployment is exerting on the handicapped adolescent is making the authorities in Member countries increasingly aware of the urgent need for suitable measures to be taken in favour of providing work for the handicapped. A number of contradictions, however, need to be pointed out, especially at the present time of limited employment opportunities.

83. Increasing awareness of the need and the right of handicapped persons to employment is coupled with the move to integration not only in school but also in open employment. The rationale of sheltered workshops is increasingly contested, not only from a philosophical, but also an economical point of view. If the best education for handicapped young people is together with their non-handicapped peers, then how can segregated employment be justified?

84. On the other hand, segregated employment has meant protected jobs, and a sheltered market. For many handicapped persons this has implied holding a job for life. In fact, parents of handicapped youth often feel more secure with their child in a sheltered workshop than in open employment. In Parma, Italy support personnel had difficulties initially in persuading parents to allow their youngsters to work in open employment. From the point of view of enterprises fighting for survival in a tightening economy, protected markets for sheltered workshops is often frowned upon. In some places trade unions have questioned the ethical justification for subsidising employment in sheltered workshops when there is a worrying rate of unemployment in the working population as a whole.

B. The Role of the School in Preparing Handicapped Youth for Employment

85. Provisions at the school level for future school leavers, whether in terms of curriculum and/or vocational guidance services, are essential. The urgency of youth unemployment in general is leading to the revision of secondary school curricula in many Member countries in order to adapt to the concrete employment needs of young people in general. Innovations in this field will make the integration of handicapped adolescents in ordinary schools more feasible, as they will be able to make more practical curriculum choices than was the case in previous academically-oriented education.

86. Separate, special schools have been conscious for a long time of the need for very practical vocational training of handicapped young people. Some very good examples of pre-leaving programmes and link courses can be found in a number of local authorities in the United Kingdom. These programmes are sometimes called "Design for Living" and are particularly oriented to the attainment of social and practical living skills. In a Somerset (United Kingdom) special school there are courses on "getting on with people", "being a citizen", "home management", "social arithmetic" and "getting a job". Similarly in Hampshire (United Kingdom) the curriculum in ESN schools (schools for the educationally sub-normal) is based on the twin needs to develop children's literacy to the highest point of which they are capable and to fit them as far as possbile for independent living.

87. Advocates of integration argue that many of these courses on social skills and getting along with people are no longer necessary if the handicapped child has been given the opportunity to "get along" in normal society and has interacted with non-handicapped peers. In a recent survey in Switzerland, 30 per cent of employers questioned as to why they were reluctant to hire the disabled, and in particular the mentally retarded,

listed the main barriers as being the lack of social skills, while lack of mastery of specific professional skills came as a secondary obstacle.

88. Work experience arrangements have also been found very useful in introducing handicapped adolescents to the world of work. It has been found to be most beneficial when initial contacts with employment happen while the young person is still in a semi-sheltered situation of the school, and where he/she can get the necessary support to overcome the potential difficulties involved in the work situation. One secondary teacher of MSN students in the United Kingdom pointed out that handicapped adolescents tended often to hold a very idealised view of employment and employers, and had a very difficult time coping with the inevitable frustrations that ensued. The school situation was essential in helping to "pick up the pieces".

C. Vocational Training and Further Education

89. The debate about whether handicapped young people should have access to ordinary vocational training and further education facilities, or attend special vocational training centres is similar to the arguments previously evoked concerning special or ordinary education. Both trends exist in Member countries although there is a strong policy trend to integrate young people at the post-school stage.

90. In Italy, a scheme of vocational training integrated into generic programmes is sponsored by the European Social Fund together with the ENAIP (National Organisation for Vocational Training in Italy) and a network of experimental centres responsible for both the physically and mentally handicapped exist in a number of provinces. The project involves about 1,100 trainees who are either school leavers with severe disabilities or older people who have spent their lives in special institutions. The basic principle of the project is that training take place in the normal working environment.

91. In Norway, the Oslo Yrkesskole, a vocational training college for 16-19 year olds, is one among a number of vocational training colleges which made a "special agreement" in 1973 concerning special admissions to vocational schools. This means that two places in each class must be reserved for students who have some social or physical handicap. Many of the young people falling into this category are those coming from psychiatric institutions, prisons, reform schools, or those with a physical handicap. Four special classes are reserved for the severely mentally retarded and there are 60 places for those needing rehabilitation.

92. Concerning further education for the handicapped, the Warnock Committee in the United Kingdom made the following recommendation:

> "Local education authorities have a duty, which is not widely recognised, to provide for all young people who want continued full-time education between the ages of 16 and 19, either in school or in an establishment of further education, though not necessarily whichever of the two the individual prefers. It is essential that they should fulfil this duty and ensure that adequate numbers of places in schools and establishments of further education are available to and taken up by young people with special educational needs. In practice a flexible range of arrangements is required."

93. In 1975, a report by the National Council for Special Education in the United Kingdom on handicapped school leavers found that 22 colleges provided full-time courses and more were making part-time provision. The numbers have since increased and a variety of pilot projects have been launched. For example, at the North Nottinghamshire College of Further Education, vocational education and training are based on the needs both of the individual student and local industries, with the added advantage that work preparation for open and sheltered employment can be based on a new purpose-built operative workshop which was part of a recent £250,000 programme. For the more able, general and vocational education can lead to recognised qualifications and advanced study; for the least able, it can range from basic literacy and numeracy to an introduction to industrial skills and adaptive behaviour.

94. Further education can be the road to employment, but also a way of prolonging the time when actual employment is to be sought. An example of some very highly educated (doctoral level) physically handicapped young people classed as unemployable participating in a new workshop for the severely physically handicapped can be found in Stockholm. The project has been set up by the vocational rehabilitation administration of the Stockholm County Council and is run by a project unit under the central administration. The goal of the experiment is to provide severely disabled youth judged as unemployable with a meaningful occupation by adapting tools and resources to individual needs and potentials.

D. Employment of Handicapped Young People

95. Even though training may be excellent and qualifications sufficient, an additional hurdle for the handicapped person is persuading the employer to hire someone who is "not like everyone else". A survey of community employers' attitudes towards hiring the handicapped carried out in Baltimore, Md. (United States) concluded that:

"Businessmen are looking for employees that have good work habits and are job ready. In many of the industries surveyed employers said that they are more interested in finding positive work attitudes and motivation to work among potential employees and they would rate these criteria higher than the need to possess technical skills."(1)

96. These findings also confirm the results of the Swiss survey cited earlier; that is, employers in fact are not so much concerned with the handicap as such that may cause difficulties in carrying out the work, but are much more concerned with the image they have of the handicapped person, i.e. as an "asocial (dangerous) individual". A United Nations Expert Group meeting on the "Social Barriers to the Integration of Disabled Persons into Community Life" considered one of the most important barriers to integration as being prejudicial attitudes due to ignorance of handicapped persons(2).

97. A number of issues regarding the employment of handicapped young people can be deduced from what has been said above. Because a number of specific obstacles must be overcome before a handicapped person can get a job, a system of support services must be made available.

98. Some sort of placement service to help the handicapped person to obtain a job is essential. A variety of different solutions to this function are being applied in Member countries. In the United Kingdom, careers officers go about finding employers willing to hire the handicapped. In Italy, it is usually the role of a member of the multi-disciplinary team in charge of the individual from school age onwards who contacts employers, persuades them to hire the individual, and provides the support needed when the person is actually on the job. In France, a departmental commission - COTOREP - is responsible for the appropriate work placement of the disabled young person. Couched in these terms, the function of placement may seem to be straightforward. This is by no means the case and much work of persuasion, trial and error is involved.

99. In a number of countries, a number of incentives are applied to persuade employers to hire handicapped persons. The first obvious motivation is positive or negative financial incentives - that is, either a bonus if hiring is done or a punitive tax if it is not. These methods have not met with great success, since it is relatively easy to get around them, and they do not tackle the real problems, that is prejudice.

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(1) David M. Steward, "Survey of Community Employer Attitudes Toward Hiring the Handicapped" in Mental Retardation, February 1977.

(2) "Social Barriers to the Integration of Disabled Persons into Community Life", A report of an Expert Group Meeting, 28th June - 5th July, 1976, United Nations, ST/ESA/62.

100. A number of strategies using temporary or full-time subsidised placement in open employment are also used in Member countries. In the United Kingdom, the Manpower Services Commission set up a Youth Opportunities Programme to promote work experience for various ranges of young people, and this has proved very effective in giving the handicapped group the introduction to working life that they need.

101. In Italy, "work experience" is also used as a way of introducing handicapped youth to working life, while at the same time giving the employer the opportunity to test the feasibility of a handicapped worker. These types of temporary placements are usually of minimal cost to the employer - the salary is subsidised either by central government or a local authority. The hope is that since there is low initial risk, the employer will accept the handicapped person and then later go on to hire him or her as the experience proves positive.

102. In Sweden, a system of "sheltered" employment is practised whereby the handicapped employee is completely integrated in the enterprise and "sheltered" means that his/her salary is partially subsidised by central authorities. As the work proves satisfactory, the enterprise will assume the entire salary.

103. Support on the job is also an essential factor in the integration of handicapped young people in employment. Just as with integration of handicapped students in ordinary schools so in industry, a certain number of conditions must be met if integration is to succeed. A recent study carried out by the Work Research Institute in Norway on integration in factories, shows that a large part of the success is due to the involvement of fellow non-handicapped workers in the integration process and their willingness to take on this kind of social responsibility. The following additional factors were also found as playing an important role:

(i) When integration is part of the personnel policy of the enterprise and not a mere "be kind to the handicapped" attitude. This means that the unions also take an active role.

(ii) That the responsibility for integrating the handicapped individual is shared by the workers on the shop floor even though a special support team may be doing the co-ordination.

(iii) Information about individual problems must be shared, that is co-workers must be informed about the kind of handicap and the deviation that can be expected from normal efficiency.

(iv) Freedom to be able to adapt the work to the potential of the handicapped worker. "In the actual situation it may be necessary to rearrange the ordinary way of doing things in order to create a meaningful job for the handicapped".

(v) It may be necessary to shelter the handicapped worker from normal efficiency demands and the normal wage system by organising wage supplements through social security. /In some parts of Italy it is considered that the handicapped worker has the right to an equal wage even if his/her productivity is not up to par./

(vi) The availability of rehabilitation services to assist, for example, in a crisis situation.

104. In order to achieve this kind of positive attitude on the part of the workers and employers, it has been found necessary in most Member countries to work initially at least with a multi-disciplinary team which carries out the necessary mediation between the handicapped person, his family, school and the enterprise. Such a team, usually composed of a psychologist, social workers, therapist, with a good knowledge of the individual, has been found to be an efficient method of co-ordinating the necessary services with the world of work. Multi-disciplinary teams are extensively used in Italy, and increasingly in France.

105. In Sweden, the National Labour Board after doing considerable research into the matter, has set up what are known as "adjustment teams" within enterprises to enable the integration of handicapped workers. The teams are composed of representatives of the workers, the employer, and a member of a professional support service. The work of the team is to make sure that attitudes are favourable towards the handicapped worker, that the work place is adjusted to his/her working potential and that integration is positive.

E. Towards an Adult Existence for Handicapped Youth

106. The transition from the status of an assisted, dependent person to a worker capable of earning a living is a significant step for handicapped youth toward an adult existence. The increasing trend towards integrating handicapped children and adolescents into ordinary schools and subsequently open employment is a gradual illustration of how handicapped people can reach the maximum of autonomous existence.

107. Again, in order to gain a certain degree of autonomy support services are necessary for handicapped people. The problems of residence, transportation, leisure activities, aid

for daily living have to be solved. In Parma, Italy, where a significant number of handicapped young people have obtained jobs in public and private enterprises, a number of different solutions are being tried out. The local multi-disciplinary support team make it their role to monitor the needs of each handicapped youth in order to be able to intervene when necessary. Most of the adolescents share an apartment or a small house with two, three or four other handicapped persons. Depending on their degree of autonomy, they may have a support person living with them more or less full time. One group may just need someone looking in occasionally to check if things are going smoothly; others may need aid for meal times and at night. Transportation is organised by the commune for those who need it, although people are encouraged to use public transportation as much as possible. Handicapped youth are encouraged to become involved in the leisure activities organised by the enterprise such as sports or spectator games. Sharing these activities with fellow workers is a very important step towards positive integration, as both the handicapped and non-handicapped get to know each other. Winter and summer holidays are organised by the local support team. An agreement exists with a number of hotels in the mountains and at the seaside to accept groups of handicapped young people accompanied by monitors for the holiday seasons.

108. For those youth not living at home with their families, the support team ensures the help needed in managing money, keeping a budget, clothing and other practical problems. The handicapped workers receive rent, food, clothing, vacations, etc. The amount of pocket money is usually discussed with the support person, who may also participate in doing shopping with the adolescent. The same services are available for married couples when needed.

109. The Swedish report on Employment for Handicapped Persons states that employment for the handicapped represents significant economic gains to society as opposed to assisted living:

> "A simple arithmetic example can be used to demonstrate that the economic gain to society for employment of occupationally handicapped individuals is substantial. This is true even when the relatively generous grants for semi-sheltered employment are paid. A comparison can be made between semi-sheltered employment and unemployment which is the most common alternative. Calculations show that the social gain when semi-sheltered(1) employment is available can be roughly estimated at U.S.$5,700 per annum per employee during the four-year period for which the grant is usually payable."

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(1) In the Swedish sense, meaning that the handicapped person's salary is subsidised through social security.

110. Examples from other Member countries demonstrate, however, that for this gain to be made by society as well as by the handicapped individual, the local community needs to become more involved when its handicapped members are relegated to distant, segregated institutions. Professor N. Hobbs' ecological model, mentioned above, is one strategy for meeting special needs on a community level. Dr. G. Allan Roeher has described a practical model for the utilisation of community services implemented in a number of Canadian provinces.

F. Living Without Work

111. When considering work for handicapped youth, the problem of those who are the most severely handicapped, and unlikely to obtain jobs cannot be ignored. By severely handicapped is meant those with multiple disabilities of such severity that they can do almost nothing; or a second group with such profound and intractable disorders of conduct that they are most difficult to employ. Traditionally this population, relatively small because of the high mortality rate, has spent its life in care institutions with no efforts being made at any kind of activity or else they were trained to carry out some very stereotyped movements as a guise for "occupation".

112. With the re-organisation and re-thinking of services for handicapped people in general, the inevitable debate of how to approach the problem of the severely handicapped arises. Is work possible, desirable, or should one think in terms of alternatives to work for the severely handicapped?

113. Two factors in particular have given impetus to a re-thinking of the role of education and work in the lives of the severely handicapped in Member countries. At one end of the scale, the legislation that abolished the concept of uneducable and encouraged a movement away from mental hospitals into care in the community has increased the need to foster the simplest of life skills for the severely disabled. At the same time the growing shortage of jobs for all young people including the handicapped poses the problem of the sheer availability of places for this group of people.

114. The Roddaren experiment in Sweden (mentioned earlier) is out to prove the unsuspected capacities for work, and the personal need for work, for the severely physically handicapped youth. A detailed report on the issue of work for this group by Drs. Tizard and Anderson suggests some interesting "alternatives" to the concept of work.

115. The authors first of all examine some of the social and psychological issues behind the significance of work. The work ethic is still all-pervasive in our societies, and this, of course, includes the handicapped. In fact, the argument that handicapped people will only become accepted into society if they can be shown to be capable of working, remains powerful.

116. This ethic, however, is being somewhat weakened by the structural changes in employment, with the reduction of employment possibilities and the increasing commitment of western societies to welfare programmes designed to safeguard all members of society, especially the disadvantaged groups. Today many people have very ambivalent attitudes towards the work ethic. Although most do subscribe albeit unconsciously to it, many also feel that the work they do is socially useless and personally unfulfilling, a necessary evil to be endured only for the sake of a pay packet. This feeling of alienation has also been responsible for contemporary attempts, especially among young people, to experiment with "alternative" life styles, for instance organic farming, communal living, craft organisations and so on. Increased welfare benefits have helped to make such experiments possible.

117. The alternative to working life suggested for the severely handicapped is far from a life of idleness. In fact, the traditional Adult Training Centres where many severely disabled people have been sent to spend the day away from home or a residential institution, are highly criticised for the poor quality of their provision. Often these centres cater mainly for the elderly and are indeed depressing places where the handicapped perform stereotyped meaningless activities.

118. The solution of day centres as such is not completely abandoned and some interesting examples are given from the United Kingdom where the handicapped mix with other people in the community. Meaningful community work is carried on and the handicapped are not segregated from the rest of the population.

119. Despite the declining work ethic, the authors admit that having a job and doing meaningful work is a most important factor in the individual's image of himself, the social contacts he/she has with others and is determinant in his/her sense of belonging to a community. Among the new approaches suggested for "significant living without work" for the severely handicapped is participation in voluntary work. It was argued that one of the main functions of work was to provide an individual with a sense of personal worth, and involvement in society at large. A number of handicapped young people and adults believe that these needs could be met at least in part by

participation in some form of voluntary service. The potential for the involvement of handicapped people as givers rather than receivers of services has hardly begun to be explored; it can be considered as one of the most fruitful approaches to the question of alternatives to work.

120. One of the main issues in volunteer work by the handicapped is that it could make good use of their specific potentials, such as the availability of time, special insights into the problems of the handicapped and their capacity to help and give advice to others in the same situation. The question of payment for these services is unclear, and it is implied that volunteer work unlike a salaried job, is more readily available and could be a kind of guarantee for integrating handicapped people into society.

## III. CONCLUSIONS

121. The first cycle of the project has made it possible to establish a base line of knowledge about special education practices and policies in schools and in the transition to adult life. The studies undertaken during this period and the meetings and seminars held have enabled a broad international perspective to be gained in the two main areas integration and transition to work. These perspectives will be made more widely known to administrators and professionals in the field through the two Readers in preparation.

122. During this period examples of effective practice and interesting innovation have been identified and seminars have teased out a number of issues of common concern. There is now need to evaluate more carefully the practices and innovations identified, to study in more detail the issues which have emerged and to tackle questions it was not possible to include in the first cycle.

123. The areas for further detailed study on the schooling theme are listed below:

(i) Factors which make an ordinary school a good setting for integration including curriculum planning, staff preparation and school organisation.

(ii) The influence of different forms of administration and methods of funding on integrating young people with handicaps in ordinary schools with further examination of the ways of providing special care and other services for them.

(iii) Young people's views on their integrated schooling and the effectiveness of such arrangements in promoting autonomy and successful socialisation for them.

(iv) The nature of parental contributions to decisions about their children's programmes and their participation in them in non-segregated educational situations, including their views on such arrangements.

(v) In-service training for all personnel concerned with young people with handicaps integrated into ordinary schools with particular reference to the further training of ordinary and special education teachers to work together.

124. The integration theme has so far underlined the importance of an understanding of the political, social and educational policies of Member countries for all young people as a context in which to study the de-segregation and integration of those with handicaps. Although these have been broadly identified in the first phase, more detailed investigations into effective practices is necessary to identify their influence on innovative arrangements so that the effective translation of such practices to contexts in other countries can be better understood. It is clear that administrative and funding arrangements influence integration and further study is necessary to identify more precisely what these influences are.

125. The first cycle has revealed very different attitudes and practices to the integration of young people with different disabilities. More work is needed to clarify specific action which needs to be undertaken to facilitate the societal integration, through education and other means, of young people who are for example profoundly deaf or severely mentally handicapped.

126. The views of parents and of the young people themselves about special educational arrangements and their effectiveness and the degree to which they participate in decisions about their education and transition to adult life are aspects of the project which have not yet been studied. They will be included in the next phase of the work.

127. Finally, the contributions to date have all highlighted the differences between ordinary schools which are good situations for young people with handicaps and those which are not. Further study is needed of the factors which make some schools good in this respect and the means of changing others in the desired direction. An essential aspect of this issue will be personnel preparation and good strategies for in-service training need to be identified.

128. The transition to work theme is in many respects more complex involving a number of social, educational and employment agencies as well as voluntary organisations. Three issues have so far been identified for further work. The first is to analyse the careers and life situation of young adults with handicaps after schooling and further training. As in the integration theme, the views of the young people themselves have not been studied in the first cycle and the second should lead to an assessment of arrangements in the light of their views. A number of interesting training programmes have been identified and detailed study of some of them could be usefully made.

129. Secondly, the transition to work of young people with handicaps is not only concerned with their education and preparation but also with what is done to adapt the working environment so that they can make an effective contribution. Studies of procedures and arrangements in some Member countries are necessary to evaluate their potential for more widespread adoption.

130. Lastly there is the complex issue of significant living without work for severely and profoundly handicapped young people. During the first cycle a sharp disagreement was evident as to whether such a concept should ever be entertained. Some see discussion of a life without work as a denial to a minority of the right to work. Others see it as a reality in a world where there is not likely to be enough work for all. There may be more common ground in discussion of the continuing education and enrichment of the life of the most disabled and handicapped young adult in the community.